

# THE SOUTHERN SPEECH JOURNAL

MAY, 1953

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# The Southern Speech Journal

VOLUME XVIII

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## DEVELOPMENT OF FORMS OF DISCOURSE IN AMERICAN RHETORICAL THEORY

VIRGIL L. BAKER\*

Many ways have been devised for the classification of spoken and written composition. Among them are divisions (a) according to opposites: metrical or non-metrical, prose or poetry, scientific or literary, literature of thought or literature of feeling; (b) according to purpose: speeches or writings to inform, to move, or to please; (c) according to *genre*: lyrics, epics, dramas, essays, demonstrative addresses, and the like; (d) according to the popular view of material and occasion: songs, poems, plays, editorials, after-dinner speeches, etc., and (e) according to "forms of discourse": narration, description, exposition, and argumentation.<sup>1</sup>

Students of English composition and of speechmaking today find, as students during the past half-century or so found, that the majority of textbooks placed heavy emphasis, in space at least, upon the forms of discourse, namely: narration, description, argumentation, and exposition. Students working during the half-century prior to approximately the decade 1870-1880, however, found the so-called forms of discourse in various embryonic stages of development. The purpose of this study is to trace the developments in rhetorical presentation out of which came the classification familiarly known as the forms of discourse. The field covered is limited to American writers who published works during the nineteenth century.

The earliest treatise in this country on the subject of rhetoric was by John Witherspoon, a Scotch Presbyterian divine who came to America in 1768 as President of the College of New Jersey (now Princeton) and held that position until his death in 1794. While at that institution he delivered a series of lectures entitled "Lectures on Eloquence." Of the nature of the lectures he stated: "We are now

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<sup>1</sup>Adapted from William T. Brewster, *English Composition and Style* (New York, 1913), 303-306.

to enter on the study of eloquence, or, as perhaps it ought to be called, from the manner in which you will find it treated, Composition, Taste, and Criticism."<sup>2</sup>

In Lecture XIII Witherspoon approached composition from the point of view of its objects or general ends. "The ends a writer or speaker may be said to aim at are information, demonstration, persuasion, and entertainment. I need scarce tell you, that these are not so wholly distinct, but that they are frequently intermixed, and that more than one of them may be in view at the same time. Persuasion is also used in a sense that includes them all."<sup>3</sup> Witherspoon did not consider these to be kinds of composition; they were psychological responses to be sought from the reader or listener.

After stating the different purposes in composition, Witherspoon classified literary types according to the dominant purpose in each. He pointed out that "The writings which have information as their chief purpose are history, fable, epistolary writing, and common intercourse of business or friendship, and all the lower kinds. . . . Demonstration is the end in view in all scientific writings, whether essays, systems, or controversies. . . . The next great end that may be in view, is persuasion. This being the great and general end of oratory, has had most said upon it in every age. . . . The last end of speaking and writing I shall mention, is entertainment. This includes all such writings as have the amusement or entertainment of the hearer or reader as the only, the chief, or at least one great end of the composition. This is the case with all poetical composition."<sup>4</sup>

When discussing information as an end, Witherspoon mentioned narration and description. He did not consider these, however, as kinds of composition in themselves, but as techniques to achieve the purpose of information. Witherspoon classified *purposes* in composition, but did not classify *forms* of composition. It is noteworthy that he was the only rhetorician studied who gave entertainment as an end in prose composition.

The next great treatise on rhetoric was that of John Quincy Adams entitled *Lectures on Rhetoric and Oratory*. These lectures, thirty-six in number, were delivered during the years 1806-1808

<sup>2</sup>The Works of John Witherspoon (Edinburgh, 1805), VII, 155. This is the first complete edition of Witherspoon's works, although some of his works were published earlier in America.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 265.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., 266-271.



while Adams was Boylston Professor of Rhetoric and Oratory at Harvard College.

Adams stated that under the statutes which governed his work he was "required to deliver, in a course of lectures, a system of rhetoric and oratory, founded upon the classical theories of antiquity."<sup>5</sup> He did not diverge appreciably from the prescribed classical point of view. Rhetoric to Adams meant the art of composing public address. He dealt, therefore, with composition of the oration, and not with composition in general, except as the principles of spoken composition have application in composition for the reader.

Adams pointed out that each of the several parts of an oration has a more or less distinct purpose of its own, but that each remains subsidiary to the overall purpose of the speaker. The main purpose of the exordium is to catch the attention and lead to the interest and goodwill of the listener. The purpose of the narration is "to give a general exposition of the facts upon which he purposes to raise his argument."<sup>6</sup> The purpose of the confirmation is to prove the proposition. Since this is, as Adams contended, the "whole duty of the speaker,"<sup>7</sup> he developed it in detail. The digression had, of course, many purposes, but it was used mainly for entertainment. Adams stated that in the schools of declamation the digression was "limited with industrious idleness to a certain class of topics; and it was stationed at one permanent post between the narration and the proof. It was a sort of moral lecture served up, by way of refreshment to the auditory, at the principal resting place on the journey."<sup>8</sup> The peroration had for its main purpose the excitation of the passions.

Adams made no classification of kinds or forms of composition. The significant feature of his work was that he, like Witherspoon, considered composition from the point of view of what the speaker could do to stir a favorable response from the listener.

In 1827 Samuel P. Newman, Professor of Rhetoric at Bowdoin College, published a text called *A Practical System of Rhetoric* which proved to be very popular and influential.<sup>9</sup> In contrast to the

<sup>5</sup>John Quincy Adams, *Lectures on Rhetoric and Oratory*, 2 vols. (Cambridge, 1810), II, 139-140.

<sup>6</sup>*Ibid.*, I, 411.

<sup>7</sup>*Ibid.*, II, 28.

<sup>8</sup>*Ibid.*, II, 95.

<sup>9</sup>Samuel P. Newman, *A Practical System of Rhetoric* (New York, 1827). This work ran through at least sixty editions in the United States and was published also in Great Britain.

treatises of Witherspoon and Adams, Newman's rhetoric was directed primarily to the training of the writer and not the speaker.

Newman's rhetoric stimulated a trend to classify all composition into basic forms. "Writings," he stated, "are distinguished from each other, as didactic, persuasive, argumentative, descriptive and narrative. These distinctions have reference to the object, which the writer has primarily and principally in view. Didactic writing, as the name implies, is used in conveying instruction; the common textbooks used in a course of education are examples. . . . When it is designed to influence the will, the composition becomes of the persuasive kind; the proposed object is made to appear desirable, and the reader is urged to pursue it. . . . Another kind of composition, and one which is found united with most others is the argumentative. Under this head are included the various forms of argument, the statement of proofs, the assigning of causes, and generally, those writings, which are addressed to the reasoning faculties of the mind. Narrative and descriptive writings relate past occurrences, and place before the mind, for its contemplation, various objects and scenes. These different kinds of composition are often found united together in the same discourse. In ancient systems of Rhetoric they became distinct objects of attention, and appropriate directions were given for the composition of each part."<sup>10</sup>

Each of these "kinds of composition," Newman claimed, derive their distinctions from the object which the writer has primarily in view. From this point of view the didactic, the persuasive, and the argumentative classification would derive out of response desired in the mind of the reader or listener. Not so with narration and description. Witherspoon had mentioned narration and description as techniques belonging to informing the listener. Newman did not relate narration and description directly to the bearing of instruction to the listener or reader, but rather, he stated, they place "various objects and scenes" before the mind for its contemplation. It would appear that Newman arrived at these two classifications by borrowings from ancient poetic rather than from ancient rhetoric. Aristotle's concept of narration in the *Rhetoric* and the Latin word *narratio* both denote a statement of facts as, for instance, in legal pleading or as a unit in a forensic oration, and did not relate to objects or events which were considered by Aristotle and the ancient

<sup>10</sup>A *Practical System of Rhetoric*, 30th ed. (New York, 1847), 28-29.

rhetoricians as belonging to the theory of poetic.<sup>11</sup> Most nineteenth century textbooks of rhetoric following Newman came to include narration and description, and to develop them in such a manner that the ancient classical rhetoricians would have recognized them as concerned more with poetic than with rhetoric.<sup>12</sup>

In addition to classifying basic kinds of composition, Newman devoted a great deal of attention to the writing of specific types such as the essay, history, biography, fiction, letters, etc., and finally ended his treatise with a significant contribution in an appendix entitled "Historical Dissertation on English Style" in which, harking back to the principles of Longinus, he reviewed in a critical manner the English writers from the origins of English literature through the reign of Charles the Second.<sup>13</sup> Such dissertations were frequent additions to the textbooks on composition and rhetoric in the nineteenth century and were the forerunners of later formal texts on English literature when it was divorced from the English composition classroom.

The process of experimentation in classifying kinds or divisions of composition reached a climax in Richard Green Parker's *Aids to English Composition*.<sup>14</sup> Witherspoon had listed four "aims" for oratorical composition; Newman had set forth five "kinds of composition"; Parker had added a sixth "division," the pathetic. "Its most obvious division, with respect to the nature of its subjects," he stated, "are the Narrative, Descriptive, the Didactic, the Persuasive, the Pathetic and the Argumentative."<sup>15</sup> He also wrote, "These different divisions of composition are not always preserved distinct, but are sometimes united or mixed."<sup>16</sup>

It would seem that Parker's analysis of composition according to "the nature of its subjects" was indicative of a cumulating shift in point of view from a focus upon the listener or reader to a focus upon the nature of the subject matter, since he gave much more attention to the theoretical development of narration and description and gave less attention to argumentation than did his predecessors.

<sup>11</sup>Charles Sears Baldwin, *Ancient Rhetoric and Poetic* (New York, 1924), 34-35.

<sup>12</sup>Donald Lemen Clark, *Rhetoric and Poetry in the Renaissance* (New York, 1922), 7-8.

<sup>13</sup>Clark, 266-311.

<sup>14</sup>Richard Green Parker, *Aids to English Composition* (Boston, 1844).

<sup>15</sup>*Aids to English Composition*, 20th ed. (New York, 1858), v.

<sup>16</sup>*Ibid.*, 301.

Although he considered the six divisions of composition as fundamental in all writing, he devoted a section of his work to instructions for writing various specific types: letters, abstracts, lyrics, pastorals, epics, dissertations, disquisitions, disputations, etc.

Exposition, as a name applied to one of the basic kinds of composition, was introduced by George Payn Quackenbos.<sup>17</sup> This element in composition, before Quackenbos, had been called "the didactic." Rhetoricians after the time of Quackenbos dropped the use of "the didactic" and came to use the term exposition.

Quackenbos reduced the kinds of composition to five in number. "The parts of Composition, whether Prose or Poetry," he stated, "are five: Description, Narration, Argument, Exposition, and Speculation."<sup>18</sup> He defined speculation as "the expression of rhetorical views not yet verified by fact or practice. It enters largely into metaphysics, and is best understood through a neat, simple style."<sup>19</sup> His addition of speculation as a "part of composition" was not copied by later writers on rhetoric.

Quackenbos' classification of "parts of composition" is, with the exception of speculation, the classification used today under the heading "forms of discourse."

Thus far in the nineteenth century, rhetorical theory and composition had been largely in the experimental stage. On the one hand rhetoricians had attempted to analyze the aims and purposes that a composer might have; while, on the other hand, they attempted to classify all composition into specific literary types. After the middle of the century, although a great deal of experimentation persisted, rhetoricians had definitely shifted the emphasis from communicative purpose to communicative materials — from rhetoric as an art to rhetoric as a science or system. Emphasis on the composition of specific literary types and on literary criticism as belonging to the field of rhetorical theory waned. Edward Tyrell Channing, Boylston Professor of Rhetoric and Oratory at Harvard from 1819 to 1851, summarized the trends in rhetorical theory at mid-nineteenth century when he said: "Without attempting a formal definition of the word, I am inclined to consider rhetoric, when reduced to a system in a book, as a body of rules derived from experi-

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<sup>17</sup>George Payn Quackenbos, *Advanced Course of Composition and Rhetoric* (New York, 1855).

<sup>18</sup>*Ibid.*, 348.

<sup>19</sup>*Ibid.*, 354.

ence and observation, extending to all communication by language and designed to make it efficient. It does not ask whether a man is to be a speaker or writer, — a poet, philosopher or debater; but simply, — is it his wish to be put in the right way of communicating his mind with power to others, by words spoken or written. . . . It has nothing to do with the different departments of the Belles Lettres, as so many distinct forms of writing. It has nothing to do with an analysis of poetry, history, fiction, biography, the drama, etc., or with their laws or their beauties. It leaves the whole field of criticism to other laborers and limits its inspection of general literature to the purpose of ascertaining and illustrating the essentials of accurate and forcible expression in all good composition."<sup>20</sup>

Now that rhetoricians were in general agreement that their treatises should be limited to "the essentials of accurate expression in all good composition," attention was focused upon narration, description, argumentation, and exposition. Although these were generally accepted as being the basic "kinds," "parts," or "divisions" of composition, there was great diversity of definition and treatment by various rhetoricians until late in the century when a philosophical basis of differentiation and definition was set forth in a systematic manner by David Jayne Hill, Professor of Rhetoric, 1877-1879, at the University of Lewisburg (now Bucknell University) and for eight years thereafter its president.

Hill's point of view was that the kinds of discourse should be determined by the nature of ideas. In his *Science of Rhetoric* written in 1877 he wrote: "That expression is conditioned by the nature of the idea to be conveyed is vaguely acknowledged by most works on Rhetoric. The Law of Ideas, based upon the essential nature of the four elementary classes of ideas, are believed to be of great importance."<sup>21</sup>

Basing his classification upon what he considered to be the four elementary classes of ideas, Hill arrived at four forms of discourse, namely, description, narration, exposition, and argumentation. He gave the following philosophical justification for his classification: "All our ideas may be distributed under two heads: (1) ideas of individual objects; and (2) general notions.

<sup>20</sup>Edward Tyrrel Channing, *Lectures on Rhetoric and Oratory Read to the Seniors at Harvard College* (Boston, 1856), 7.

<sup>21</sup>David Jayne Hill, *The Science of Rhetoric: An Introduction to the Laws of Effective Discourse* (New York, 1885), 7.

"Our first knowledge is of individuals — particular trees, particular flowers, particular men. These individual ideas are presented to us in two ways. We know some objects as *simultaneous* wholes, whose parts are co-existent; as a rose, a landscape, a house. Other ideas are *successive* wholes, whose parts do not co-exist, but follow one another in time: a storm, a shipwreck, a journey. In other words, some of our ideas relate to objects in space, others to events in time.

"By abstraction and generalization we derive general notions from particular ideas. Thus we are able to think of *house*, *animal*, *mountain*, without thinking of any particular object. Such a notion is expressed by a common term, which applies equally well to any individual of the class. One general notion may be affirmed of another, as when we predicate *whiteness* of an *animal*, and say, *The animal is white*. This act is a judgment, and is expressed by a proposition.

"All our ideas may be referred to one of these four classes. If then we discover the laws of these four elementary forms of discourse, we shall cover the whole ground of the conditions of communication depending upon the nature of the idea. These four classes of ideas give rise to four different processes of communication: (1) The parts of a *simultaneous* whole are presented to the mind by Description. (2) The parts of a *successive* whole are presented to the mind by Narration. (3) A *general notion* is unfolded to the mind by Exposition. (4) A *proposition* is confirmed to the mind by *Argumentation*.<sup>22</sup>

D. J. Hill's classification of composition into four elemental forms of discourse according to the fourfold nature of ideas appeared to be a valid approach to rhetoric and definitely in line with the scientific thinking of the period. The trend noted in Newton's *A Practical System of Rhetoric*, half a century earlier, to make of rhetoric a science rather than an art, climaxed in Hill's *Science of Rhetoric*.

Since Hill's time rhetoricians who composed texts dealing with the rhetoric of writing have universally accepted narration, description, exposition, and argumentation as *the* forms of discourse. Many of these same writers defined rhetoric as the science of discourse. Other rhetoricians, who composed texts dealing with the rhetoric

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<sup>22</sup>*Ibid.*, 73-74.

of public address, dealt more with speaker purpose and audience response than with the forms of discourse and consequently stressed rhetoric as an art.

The rapidly mounting interest in language barriers to communication has reached such proportions as to constitute a revival of rhetoric. The modern trend appears to be directed toward studies of misunderstandings and their remedies and away from emphasis upon the four forms of discourse. The rhetoric of tomorrow may rest heavily upon the science of semantics.

## NEGRO SPEAKERS IN CONGRESS: 1869-1875

BERT BRADLEY\*

### I

When the loss of the Civil War forced upon the rebel Southern States reconstruction policies devised by the radical Republican Congress, the newly emancipated Negro was abruptly enfranchised while a large number of Southern whites were deprived of their vote. Since Negro majorities existed in many areas, not a few colored men were elected to city, county, and state offices in the period immediately following the close of the war. Some of these aspired to higher office, however, and when the errant states were readmitted to the Union several Negro congressmen were elected to represent their states.

From 1869 to 1875 eleven Negroes sat in Congress representing five southern states, although only one of these served in the Senate. The lone senator, Hiram R. Revels, was elected from Mississippi to finish an uncompleted term from 1869 to 1871. In the House during this Forty-first Congress were Representatives James H. Rainey from South Carolina and J. F. Long from Georgia. Negro representatives in the Forty-second Congress included R. B. Elliott, R. C. DeLarge, and J. H. Rainey from South Carolina; B. E. Turner from Alabama; and J. T. Walls from Florida. The House of Representatives of the Forty-third Congress found Elliott and Rainey returned from South Carolina along with the new Representatives, R. H. Cain and A. J. Ransier. J. R. Lynch from Mississippi, J. T. Rapier from Alabama, and Walls re-elected from Florida, completed the Negro bloc in the House.<sup>1</sup>

These congressmen composed a heterogeneous group. Their diversity in education, racial stock, and appearance was marked. For example, Elliott, a free born Negro, had attended High Hollow Academy in England and later was graduated from Eton College. Upon his return to South Carolina he studied law and was admitted to the bar. He was credited with having one of the best libraries in the state. He could read French, German, Spanish, and Latin. In

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<sup>1</sup>Samuel Denny Smith, *The Negro in Congress, 1870-1900* (Chapel Hill, North Carolina, 1940), 5.



contrast, Turner from Alabama was born and reared a slave. He received no formal education and only by clandestine methods was he able to study at all. It was rumored that he was able to write his name and nothing more. Lynch, from Mississippi, attended school in Natchez where he studied photography and law and was admitted to the bar. Walls, a free Negro, was taken into the Confederate Army as a servant to an artillery battery. He was captured at Yorktown and carried to Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, where he attended school for a year.<sup>2</sup>

The dissimilarity in the appearance of these men was as marked as the disparity in their educational background. Rainey was described as "a light mulatto with regular features; bright, genial eyes; pleasant expression; broad, clear brow; and a profusion of silky hair. He was a of medium height, with a graceful and easy carriage and very small hands, which he used effectively in gesturing."<sup>3</sup> On the other hand, Cain was depicted as "an African in looks, eloquence, wit, and dramatic power. His long arms waved, and his face assumed in turn a pathetic, humorous, or sardonic expression. Some facetiously called him 'the Darwinian missing link.'"<sup>4</sup>

Probably the one characteristic which was common to practically all of these Negroes was that each one of them had served in his state government in some capacity before his election to Congress. For example, Elliott from South Carolina was a member of the State Constitutional Convention in 1868, a member of the State House of Representatives, 1868-1870, and Assistant Adjutant General of the State, 1869-1871. Lynch from Mississippi was appointed by the Governor as a justice of the peace in 1869 and was a member of the State House of Representatives, 1869-1873, where he served as speaker during his last term. Rapier from Alabama was a member of the State Constitutional Convention in 1867, was appointed Assessor of Internal Revenue in 1871, and was appointed the State Commissioner to the Vienna Exposition by the Governor in 1873.<sup>5</sup>

These eleven Negroes made a total of forty-three speeches of varying merit and on various topics in Congress during the period from 1869 to 1875. The range of their subjects was restricted, being

<sup>2</sup>*Ibid.*, 51 ff.

<sup>3</sup>*Ibid.*, 45.

<sup>4</sup>*Ibid.*, 67.

<sup>5</sup>*Biographical Directory of the American Congress, 1870-1949* (United States Government Printing Office, 1950), *passim*, 934-1970.

confined mostly to problems directly affecting the Negro or the South. Included among these are speeches on civil rights, amnesty, enforcement of the fourteenth amendment, education, the Ku Klux Bill, refund of the cotton tax, levees in Mississippi, condition of the South, the Georgia bill, the fortification bill, financial condition of South Carolina, the Freedmen's Bureau, Cuban belligerency, the centennial celebration, the Selma Bill, Cooly labor, old age benefits, salary of Congress, and a eulogy on Sumner.

Among these diverse topics one subject appears to have elicited the attention and the most persuasive eloquence of all the Negro Congressmen. This was the Civil Rights Bill. They made this bill the focus of their concentrated effort, delivering thirteen speeches in its behalf — far more than they delivered in behalf of any other single measure. In view of this fact, and in the belief that these speeches represent the most significant speaking effort of Negro Congressmen, this paper will be confined to an analysis of those speeches delivered in support of the Civil Rights Bill.

## II

Most of the speeches delivered on the Civil Rights Bill were cast in rebuttal form, with Negro orators attempting to answer six major arguments advanced by the opponents of Civil Rights. Each speaker usually emphasized the refutation of one or more anti-Civil Rights arguments, but each usually made some reference to other opposition arguments.

A major argument against the Civil Rights Bill was that it was unconstitutional. Elliott of South Carolina replied to this argument in a widely acclaimed speech by quoting from *Lieber on Civil Liberty*, from Alexander Hamilton, and from the French Constitution to the effect that the purpose of government is to insure "that every individual of the community at large has an equal right to the protection of the Government."<sup>6</sup> He reasoned that the Negro, being a member of the community at large, was as much entitled to the protection of the Constitution as the white man.

Attempting to refute this same argument, Rainey, also of South Carolina, quoted a sentence from Article Four, Section Two of the United States Constitution which says: "The citizens of each State

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<sup>6</sup>*Congressional Record*, Vol. II, 43rd Congress, 1st Session, 407-410.

shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States." Rainey alleged that it was unconstitutional, in view of the passage quoted, for a Southern State or any other state to deny privileges to Negroes which were guaranteed to other citizens.<sup>7</sup>

The same, or similar arguments, were advanced by other Negro Congressmen, notably, Lynch and Rapier.<sup>8</sup>

Another argument advanced by the opponents of Civil Rights was that the Negro did not deserve and was, presumptuously, attempting to obtain unmerited social equality. Here Negro Congressmen answered emotional argument with emotional argument, often in a very acrimonious spirit.

Rainey, for example, replied on one occasion that the Negro was not demanding inter-marriage of the two races and further declared that he did not want to force anyone to associate with him who did not care to. Conversely, however, he did not want to be forced to associate with anyone against his will.<sup>9</sup> In another speech he contended that social equality could not be legislated and then asserted:

. . . the colored people, are not in quest of social equality. For one I do not ask to be introduced into your family circles if you are not disposed to receive me there. Among my own race we have as much respectability, intelligence, virtue, and refinement possible to expect from any class circumstanced as we have been. This being so, why should I cast imputation upon my people by saying to them, "I do not want your society; I prefer to associate with the whites." Why should I be ashamed of them with their blood flowing in my veins? Such is not the promptings of my heart nor of my colored colleagues on this floor.<sup>10</sup>

Rapier also affirmed that the Negro would not countenance the use of force to gain social equality.<sup>11</sup> Cain, the most vituperative speaker of the group, exclaimed:

Do you suppose I would introduce into my family a class of white men I see in this country? . . . No, sir, for there are men even who have positions upon this floor, and for whom I have respect, but of whom I should be careful how I introduced them into my family. I should be afraid indeed their old habits acquired beyond Mason and Dixon's line might return.<sup>12</sup>

<sup>7</sup>*Ibid.*, Vol. III, 2nd Session, 958-960.

<sup>8</sup>*Ibid.*, Vol. II, 1st Session, 4782-4786; Vol. III, 2nd Session, 943-947.

<sup>9</sup>*Ibid.*, Vol. II, 1st Session, 343-344.

<sup>10</sup>*Ibid.*, Vol. III, 2nd Session, 958-960.

<sup>11</sup>*Ibid.*, Vol. II, 1st Session, 4782-4786.

<sup>12</sup>*Ibid.*, Vol. III, 2nd Session, 956-957.

Evidently most Negro Congressmen felt that the most persuasive reply to the argument that the Negro was in quest of social equality lay in vigorously denying the Negro's inclination to associate with the whites in any but the most formal social situations.

A third argument advanced by the opponents of Civil Rights was the contention that mixed schools were impractical and conducive to friction between the races. Cain, Ransier, and Rainey replied by calling attention to the fact that schools had been mixed in South Carolina, Massachusetts, Ohio, and other Eastern States without damage to the level of instruction and without provoking insurrection and rebellion. They also pointed out that mixed schools had at one time been opposed in many places where Negroes and Whites were now attending school together successfully. Finally, in disgust and irritation at the opposition, Cain declared:

I think, so far as the educational clause of the civil-rights bill is concerned, we shall not lose anything if it is struck out. There is more ignorance in proportion in this country among the whites than there is among the colored.<sup>13</sup>

The opponents of Civil Rights argued in the fourth place that the passage of a Civil Rights Bill was unnecessary since the Negro already enjoyed all the rights granted to whites, such as the right to vote, to hold office, to sue and be sued, to be a witness, and to hold property. Rainey responded by declaring that Southern States were *not* granting the Negro his constitutional rights. He told of a measure he had recently seen pending to deprive Negroes of Kentucky the right of suffrage. In another speech Rainey agreed that while common law did contain provisions which might be construed to apply to Negroes, they "are so general in their character as frequently to lose specific application and force unless wrought into statutory enactment."<sup>14</sup>

Elliott argued that the Civil Rights Bill was desirable as protection not only for the Negroes but for other minorities as well. He argued, "The results of the war, as seen in reconstruction, have settled forever the political status of my race. The passage of this bill will determine the civil status, not only of the Negro, but of

<sup>13</sup>*Ibid.*, For examples cited see the following: Vol. II, 1st Session, 343-344, 565-567, 901-903, 1311-1314; Vol. II, 2nd Session, 958-960, 956-957, 981-982.

<sup>14</sup>*Ibid.*, Vol. II, 1st Session, 343-344; Vol. III, 2nd Session, 958-960.

any other class of citizens who may feel themselves discriminated against."<sup>15</sup>

Cain countered the argument that the Negro enjoyed equal rights by citing several instances when he personally was refused rooms in hotels, seats on train coaches, and entry into dining cars and rooms. For example, he said:

A few days ago, in passing from South Carolina to this city, I entered a place of public resort where hungry men are fed, but I did not dare — I could not without trouble — sit down to the table. I could not sit down at Wilmington or at Weldon without entering into a contest, which I did not desire to do.<sup>16</sup>

Ransier commented that if the Negro did not need this bill, "Sumner would not have uttered the dying words of 'Do not let the Civil Rights Bill fail!'" Ransier also believed the bill would "go far to remove from the field of politics that which goes far to array one class against the other, and would go far to disarm the mere political demagogue who is ever on the alert to use the colored vote for their own selfish ends."<sup>17</sup>

It was paradoxical, reported Rapier, that the law recognized his right on the floor of Congress as a lawmaker but did not assure him accommodations when he was traveling between Alabama and Washington. According to him the South would never give the Negro these rights unless the bill was passed. He suggested that if there had been no reconstruction acts or amendments to the Constitution public opinion in the South would never have considered giving them the ballot.<sup>18</sup>

A fifth contention offered against the Civil Rights Bill was that its passage would cause strife between the two races, especially in the South. Cain's rejoinder to this was that a feeling of fraternization had once existed between the two races and that the degree of prejudice and antagonism which now prevailed had been magnified by a minority in the South in order to deprive the Negro of the rights he had attained since emancipation. Rainey pointed out that this same argument had been used in Congress to oppose giving the Negro suffrage and the right to sit in the jury box. These rights had been granted the Negro, he said, and they had caused no trouble in his

<sup>15</sup>*Ibid.*, Vol. II, 1st Session, 407-410.

<sup>16</sup>*Ibid.*, Vol. II, 1st Session, 565-567.

<sup>17</sup>*Ibid.*, Vol. II, 1st Session, 1311-1314, 4786.

<sup>18</sup>*Ibid.*, Vol. II, 1st Session, 4782-4786.

own State of South Carolina. The only trouble, he contended, is that the negro "is so loyal to the Government and true to the party that has given him such rights as he has, that he cannot be prevailed upon to enter the ranks of the opposition." In reply to a Congressman from North Carolina who argued that the passage of the Civil Rights Bill would kill the South, Cain retorted with another of his caustic remarks, "I think if so harmless a measure as the civil-rights bill, guaranteeing to every man of the African race equal rights with men, would bring death to the South, then certainly that noble march of Sherman to the sea would have fixed them long ago."<sup>19</sup>

The opponents of Civil Rights presented, as a sixth argument, evidence purporting to show that the masses of Negroes did not want the Civil Rights Bill passed. Ransier contradicted this contention by submitting an imposing stack of petitions from Negro conventions held in various states calling for the passage of the bill. Then turning from his mass of evidence Ransier declared:

What pains me most in this matter is that men coming from the South, from Tennessee and from Virginia, indebted for their elevation to the position of members of Congress on this floor in part at least to colored votes, are to be found declaring that colored men do not want the civil-rights bill. . . . I say to them, in the language, of Charles Sumner to a Senator of the United States, "They are not your constituency; they are mine." You misrepresent them and have added insult to the injury you inflict.<sup>20</sup>

Other Negroes did not speak to this point, assuming it can be supposed, that Ransier's rebuttal was sufficient to carry the argument.

In addition to refutation of their opponents' case, Negro Congressmen concentrated upon establishing one constructive argument. Apparently they felt that their strongest argument lay in stressing that the Negro deserved Civil Rights for four reasons. He deserved Civil Rights, they asserted, because: (1) he had aided in building the commerce of the nation, (2) he had rendered meritorious military service, (3) he possessed a character and intelligence that made him a good citizen, and (4) he deserved equality of rights in the name of justice.

Cain and Rapier reminded their audience that during two hun-

<sup>19</sup>*Ibid.*, Vol. II, 1st Session, 565-567, 901-903; Vol. III, 2nd Session, 958-960.

<sup>20</sup>*Ibid.*, Vol. II, 1st Session, 1311-1314, 4786.

dred years of forced toil the Negro had assisted in building up the commercial interests of the nation. They reasoned that it was now the nation's duty to aid him in attaining his just rights. In an emotional peroration to one of his speeches Elliott presented what was probably the most effective statement of this argument when he said:

The Holy Scriptures tell us of an humble hand-maiden who long, faithfully and patiently gleaned in the rich fields of her wealthy kinsman; and we are told further, that at last, in spite of her humble antecedents, she found complete favor in his sight. For over two centuries our race has "reaped down your fields." The cries and woes which we have uttered have "entered into the ears of the Lord of Sabaoth," and we are at last politically free. The last vestiture only is needed — civil rights. Having gained this, we may, with hearts overflowing with gratitude, and thankful that our prayer has been granted repeat the prayer of Ruth: "Entreat me not to leave thee, or to return from following after thee; for whither thou goest, I will go; and where thou lodgest, I will lodge; thy people shall be my people, and thy God my God; where thou diest, will I die, and there will I be buried; the Lord do so to me, and more also, if aught but death part thee and me."<sup>21</sup>

Elliott contended that the military history of the Negro proved that he had earned Civil Rights. To support this statement he cited the fact that the Negro had been loyal to the Union and had fought for it in both the Revolutionary War and the Civil War. Not lacking evidence for this assertion, Elliott read a letter from General Greene, an officer in the Revolutionary War, commending a Negro regiment under Jackson at New Orleans for holding the extreme right of the line and driving the English back. Then turning to Beck, a Representative from Kentucky who was a violent opponent of the Civil Rights Bill, Elliott read a portion of a letter from Jackson: "At the very moment when the entire discomfiture of the enemy was looked for with a confidence amounting to certainty, the Kentucky reinforcements, in whom so much reliance had been placed, ingloriously fled." Elliott then suggested to Beck that he not "flaunt his heraldry so proudly while he bears this bar-sinister on the military escutcheon of his State — a State which answered the call of the Republic in 1861, when treason thundered at the very gates

<sup>21</sup>*Ibid.*, For examples cited see the following: Vol. II, 1st Session, 407-410, 565-567, 4782-4786; Vol. III, 2nd Session, 956-957.

of the Capitol, by coldly declaring her neutrality in the impending struggle."<sup>22</sup>

Ransier affirmed that the Negro deserved Civil Rights because he has "been patient under long suffering, and exhibited a forgiving and friendly disposition, that make him at once a good and peaceable citizen." Then addressing himself to Robbins, a Representative from North Carolina who claimed the Negro did not deserve Civil Rights because he had remained passively behind on the plantations during the war and had taken no action to obtain freedom, Ransier somewhat bitterly said:

... if those with whom the gentleman acts politically had shown during the years of the agitation of the question of slavery in this country, especially in the past fifteen years or so, that patience, Christian spirit, and I might add good sense, exhibited by the Negro during the rebellion, the country would not have been called upon to mourn the loss of three hundred thousand of her sons, cut off by the casualties of war, and to groan to-day under a debt of over two billion dollars.<sup>23</sup>

Rainey maintained that in the light of humanity and the progress of civilization the Negro deserved Civil Rights, while Cain, asserting that all citizens should be placed on the same footing, declared that justice demanded passage of the bill.<sup>24</sup>

### III

In light of the above survey, it appears that Negro Congressmen who spoke in Congress during this period on the Civil Rights Bill concentrated their major effort toward refuting arguments of their opponents. Their pleas were centered around six contentions: (1) the bill was not unconstitutional; (2) the Negro did not look to the passage of this bill for the attainment of social equality; (3) mixed schools would cause no trouble; (4) the bill was needed to insure Negroes all rights which whites possessed; (5) passage of the bill would not cause strife since prejudice and antagonism had been aroused against it by a small minority; and (6) Negro groups all over the South were calling for the passage of the Civil Rights Bill.

Although their major effort was directed toward refutation, Negro Congressmen, almost without exception, made a strong plea

<sup>22</sup>*Ibid.*, Vol. II, 1st Session, 407-410.

<sup>23</sup>*Ibid.*, Vol. II, 1st Session, 1311-1314.

<sup>24</sup>*Ibid.*, Vol. II, 1st Session, 343-344, 565-567; Vol. III, 2nd Session, 956-957.



on the ground that the Negro had materially aided in building the commerce of the nation, that his military record in the nation's wars merited it, that the character and intelligence of the Negro would make him a good citizen, and that equal rights were required in the interest of humanity and justice.

The unified and concentrated effort in behalf of the Civil Rights Bill was accomplished for the most part with a dignity and spirit that merit admiration. The fact that their speaking failed to prevent the emasculation of the bill does not detract from the contribution they made to the welfare of their race by exemplary behavior during a difficult and trying period.

## BRIEF HISTORY OF DEBATING IN LOUISIANA<sup>1</sup>

FRED TEWELL\* AND WALDO W. BRADEN\*\*

In these days when Louisianans and Texans are so wrought-up over the tidelands issue, it may come somewhat as a surprise to learn that over forty years ago Louisiana State University in its first intercollegiate debate met the University of Texas, discussing the proposition: Resolved, that the federal government should have control over the natural resources of the United States. The fact that on that occasion Texas won upholding the negative might indicate that even in those days Texans felt intensely about the problems of natural resources.

That first debate, held April 16, 1909, in Old Garig Hall, Baton Rouge, Louisiana, was considerably different from the intercollegiate debates of today. The hall was crowded. The University orchestra opened the occasion with a stirring number. The chairman paid eloquent tribute to the "world's orators," who, he said, would live "when warriors have been forgotten." After this beginning each speaker addressed the audience with fervor and earnestness. The judges that night included the Honorable W. S. Parkerson, W. Gleason, state senator, and J. Y. Sanders, governor of the state. According to the *Reveille*, "Amidst a dead silence the decisions, sealed individually," were collected and carried to the chairman. "After what seemed an age to the excited audience" the chairman announced that Texas had triumphed by a vote of two to one. In spite of the disappointment the students "quickly assembled and burst out in mighty yells for Texas, Louisiana, and the individual speakers." Indeed debating has changed in these forty years. In 1952 when the usual forensic event seldom stirs any excitement, it is difficult to imagine the students showing great enthusiasm for a debate team. If a student debater today heard a cheer in his behalf, he would probably faint or flee to a more protected place.

Intercollegiate debating was initiated in Louisiana some fifteen

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<sup>1</sup>Based on Tewell, Fred, *A History of Intercollegiate Debating in the State Collegiate Institutions of Louisiana* (M. A. Thesis, Louisiana State University, 1949).

years after it had become popular among eastern and middle western schools. Some southern schools had been debating for several years. As early as 1897 a team from the University of North Carolina met one from the University of Georgia. The slowness of the activity to catch on at Louisiana State may have been due in part to the military training program on the campus, which absorbed much of the students' time and energy.

Not discouraged by their initial defeat Louisiana State resumed forensic activities the next year, and in the spring sent a team to the University of Texas to discuss the question: Resolved, that the women of the United States should be granted the suffrage on equal terms with men. *The Texan*, semi-weekly student newspaper, reported that this event drew the "largest crowd" ever to assemble for a debate. The Louisianans lost again two to one, but the student paper reported that "They gave Texas a fight for their money and lost hard." The reporter thought it was "especially refreshing to note and hear the pent up enthusiasm that was let forth in the form of yells for the various speakers." He said that it would have been difficult to tell whether it was "football rally or an interstate debate."

During the year 1910-1911 Louisiana State joined with the universities of Arkansas, Tennessee, Mississippi, and Texas to organize the Pentagonal Debating League, an organization that was destined to function for three seasons. The elaborate constitution (published in the *Reveille*, October 22, 1910) included a four-year schedule in which negative teams were to travel and debates were to be held on the five campuses simultaneously the first Friday after the second Monday of April. Constructive speeches were to be seventeen minutes long and rebuttals five minutes. Contests were to be judged by "three disinterested persons" who were to be "so far as practicable judges in the higher courts or prominent attorneys." Decisions were to be based upon "the merits of the debate" and not upon the judges' opinions of the "merits of the question." During the first year Louisiana State, again unsuccessful, lost to Mississippi and Arkansas. In three seasons the L.S.U. speakers had not tasted the fruits of victory.

In the fall of 1911 the university officials, somewhat disturbed by the school's poor showing, decided to remedy the situation; consequently they employed John Quincy Adams to coach debate and teach public speaking. Adams had been trained at the University

of Michigan, where he had studied under Thomas C. Trueblood. He held both a B.A. degree and an L.L.B. from that institution. He had taught at Alma College, Franklin and Marshall, the University of Illinois, and Pennsylvania State. Under his leadership a department of speech was immediately organized and the forensic program was energized. In 1912 he was instrumental in procuring a chapter of Tau Kappa Alpha, the sixteenth chapter in the nation and the third in the South (Vanderbilt and North Carolina had earlier chapters).

During the Adams regime debating continued on much the same basis that it had during its first three years. With the discontinuance of the Pentagonal League, a triangular league was organized during the fall of 1913 with Texas and Arkansas. In the seasons of 1915-1916 and 1916-1917 this organization was replaced by a similar one including Baylor and Southern Methodist University.

Following World War I debates were conducted on the home-and-home basis usually involving interchanges with the universities of Arkansas, Florida, or Alabama. L.S.U. speakers ordinarily participated each year in two home debates and two away. Although the squads sometimes included as many as eight, seldom did more than four have an opportunity for intercollegiate participation. In February 1924 a Louisiana State team participated in a radio debate, the first in the history of the school. The L.S.U. team, composed of Beverly S. Latham, the first woman to represent the University, and Robert Kennon, the present governor of the State, debated a team from the University of Alabama over the facilities of KFCC in Port Allen, directly across the river from Baton Rouge.

In recognition of his leadership, Professor Adams was elected national president of Tau Kappa Alpha in 1926. That same year the L.S.U. speakers made their first debate tour, visiting schools in Arkansas, Oklahoma, Kansas, and Texas. T. Earle Johnson, who had debated on L.S.U. teams the two previous seasons, served as assistant director of debate.

About 1930 debating in all of the colleges of Louisiana entered a new phase. The programs were broadened and most of the schools were fortunate to find enthusiastic directors. After this date the debate tour and the tournament became regular features of most of the programs. During the tenure of Claude Shaver, who served as the L.S.U. director of debate from 1928 to 1932, the tour became a regular feature of the University schedule. In 1928-1929 the L.S.U. speakers made two extensive trips by automobile, one east to meet

Emory University and Oglethorpe University in Georgia, and a second into Oklahoma and Arkansas, meeting the University of Oklahoma, Oklahoma City University, Shawnee Baptist College, and the University of Arkansas. The following year the L.S.U. debaters made a tour through Texas and another into Mississippi, Tennessee, and Alabama. Through the years L.S.U. has continued this practice although these trips have seldom extended outside the South. In more recent years debates have been scheduled along the way to and from tournaments. In 1932 the L.S.U. debaters, under the direction of Dr. Giles W. Gray, entered the first Southern Forensic Tournament at Asheville, North Carolina. The University has continued more or less consistently to participate in the tournaments sponsored by the Southern Speech Association, and in 1938 and again 1947 the L.S.U. Department of Speech played host in Baton Rouge to the Southern Speech Association.

Under the leadership of Dallas C. Dickey, who served as director of debate from 1935 until 1946, Louisiana State again expanded its forensic program. In 1936 it joined the Missouri Valley Forensic League, one of the older leagues, which is composed of universities extending from Texas to South Dakota. Women's teams became a regular feature. The L.S.U. program has usually consisted of two to five tournaments a year and a number of home debates with teams from nearby schools as well as some from far away. At various times the campus has been visited by debate teams from the University of Southern California, Wheaton College, Ottawa University, Muhlenburg College, New York University, Stanford University, Princeton University, Linfield College, Georgetown University, and the U.S. Military Academy. In addition on at least seven occasions the L.S.U. speakers have debated English teams, mainly from Oxford, who have toured this country. Since World War II, L.S.U. has played a more active part in Tau Kappa Alpha, participating in both regional and national meets. The directors of forensics since the time of Adams have sought to promote the forensic activities among the high schools. Recently an annual tournament for the Louisiana colleges and an annual workshop for the high school teachers of the state have been initiated.

Among former L.S.U. debaters are many prominent men including Russell Long, Senator from the State; Robert Kennon, the present Governor; DeLesseps Morrison, mayor of New Orleans; and Hubert Humphrey, Senator from Minnesota (while in graduate

school at L.S.U., Humphrey represented the school in a debate against Oxford.) In over forty years there have been only six directors, all of whom except one were trained speech teachers. They have included A. G. Reed, Professor of English, 1908-1911; John Quincy Adams, 1911-1928; C. L. Shaver, 1928-1932; Giles W. Gray, 1932-1935; Dallas Dickey, 1935-1946; and Waldo W. Braden, since 1946.

Debating came to most of the other Louisiana campuses much later. Louisiana College may have had a debate team as early as 1908. Soon after it acquired junior college standing in 1912, Southwestern Louisiana Institute started an annual series of dual debates with Louisiana College. This practice continued well into the twenties. About this time Louisiana College included an offering in the English Department entitled "A Course in Debate." Its purpose was "to prepare the students for intercollegiate participation in forensic contests." Louisiana Normal College (presently known as Northwestern State College and hereafter in this paper referred to as Northwestern) and Louisiana Polytechnic Institute delayed their programs until the middle twenties. Northwestern probably held its first debates with Arkansas State Normal College of Conway, Arkansas. The Northwestern *Catalog* (1926) indicates that in the spring of 1925 Northwestern met Arkansas State Normal, Louisiana College, and Southwestern Louisiana Institute. During the 1927-1928 season Northwestern, Centenary, and Louisiana Polytechnic Institute organized a triangular league. The following year Northwestern, Louisiana Polytechnic, and Southwestern formed a similar organization which probably continued for three seasons. At this time the smaller schools limited their competition generally to nearby schools, but occasionally they entertained touring teams from outside the state. During the 1922-1923 season Southwestern debated Baylor University. The following year a team from Oklahoma City University visited the various campuses. In 1924-1925 Centenary met teams from Utah Agricultural College of Logan as well as from Hendricks and Millsaps. In 1926-1927 and again in 1929-1930 Southwestern entertained a team from Weber, a junior college in Utah. Louisiana Polytechnic Institute became the first Louisiana school to meet a foreign team, debating Oxford University during the fall of 1929. The forensic programs of these first years in the smaller schools were usually under the direction of teachers of English, history, or economics, who were willing to carry extra loads.

The programs flourished when there was an enthusiastic director of the activity and lapsed in years when there was no one to carry on.

After 1930 the smaller schools of the State followed much the same pattern as Louisiana State University. In 1930 R. L. Ropp became director of debate at Northwestern, a position in which he continued until 1949, when he became president of Louisiana Polytechnic Institute. Under his able leadership Northwestern developed an active and far-reaching program. It has consistently participated in the Savage Forensic, sponsored by Southeastern State College of Durant, Oklahoma, the Baylor University Tournament, the Mid-South Tournament, and the tournament sponsored by East-Central State College at Ada, Oklahoma. In 1936 Northwestern made an extended tour through eleven southern states, traveling over three thousand five hundred miles. During the 1933-1934 season Ropp initiated a tournament at Northwestern which has become one of the leading forensic events of the lower South. For the last several years it has drawn fifteen to twenty institutions scattered widely over five to seven states. It includes competition in all classes of debate, senior men, senior women, junior men, junior women as well as contests in many other types of speaking. It has been conducted annually with the exception of the war years.

Southwestern Louisiana Institute was particularly fortunate when Harry De La Rue became professor of history. In 1926 he first became associated with debating at S.L.I. and continued his interest until 1939. During these years Southwestern held some home debates and usually participated in the activities of Pi Kappa Delta. In 1939 Roy D. Murphy, a trained speech teacher, was hired to organize a speech department and direct debate. Since that time S.L.I. debaters have consistently participated in the Savage Forensic, the Northwestern State Tournament, the Millsaps College Tournament. In addition it has continued to enter the province and national contests of Pi Kappa Delta. In 1946-1947 the Southwestern debaters were unusually successful in the National Pi Kappa Delta Convention, which met at Bowling Green University in Ohio. The Southwestern Women's team won national sweepstakes. Professor Murphy has been active in Pi Kappa Delta and has brought national recognition to the Lafayette campus.

Louisiana Polytechnic Institute has been probably less active than the other two state schools. Tech probably entered its first tournament in 1931-1932 when the Tech debaters entered the Baylor invi-

tational tournament at Waco, Texas and the Tri-State Tournament held at Conway, Arkansas. While H. J. Sachs was director of debate from 1932 to 1937, the Tech debaters annually planned a debate tour as well as participating in the Northwestern State Tournament. In 1938 Elton Abernathy, a trained teacher of speech, became director of debate. Under his leadership the offerings in speech were expanded. However, the Tech debaters seemed to follow no consistent pattern in their competition. After they have participated in the tournament sponsored by the Southern Speech Association.

The other schools of the State have been active in varying degrees. Louisiana College under the direction of O. E. Wood and later Scott Nobles carried on an extensive program for many years and participated also in the affairs of Pi Kappa Delta. In recent years on at least two occasions Louisiana College has received invitations and has participated in the West Point Invitational Tournament. Debating at Tulane University has been under the auspices of the Glendy Burke Literary Society with little or no faculty direction. The Society each year holds several campus debates and participates in a few tournaments. Likewise two literary societies with the aid of a part time director have sponsored debating at Loyola University. The most recent addition to the forensic field is Southeastern State College of Hammond, where a program was instituted under the direction of Huber Ellingsworth (M.A. Washington State College) in 1950. The smaller schools have affiliated with Pi Kappa Delta. Louisiana College established the Alpha chapter of the state in 1925, followed by Centenary in 1926, Southwestern in 1930, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute in 1944, and Northwestern in 1951.

At mid-century debating on the campuses of Louisiana is thriving and promising. Ten of the eleven four-year institutions maintain programs. These schools send students far and wide to compete in a variety of contests, tournaments, festivals, and congresses. Eight schools employ full-time speech teachers to direct extracurricular speech events. In most of the schools departments or divisions of speech have extensive curricular offerings which give substance to forensic programs.



## DEBATE AS A SOCIAL METHODOLOGY

BURTON H. BYERS\*

The relationship of debate to the affairs of a democratic society has long been recognized, but it appears that too often the teaching of debate in high schools and colleges is not productive of democratic debaters. Debate, as a social methodology in a democratic society, often has little or nothing in common with the learnings that result from forensic programs. It would be interesting to study the speech behavior of political campaigners who are former debaters. Often it appears that former debaters are more adept at making a case by means of misrepresentation and distortion than they are at analyzing and clarifying the issues so that an informed electorate can make a wise decision.

Some time ago I heard one of the most successful high school debate teams in Tennessee. They had, at any rate, been quite successful in winning decisions. Their pattern of attack was to evade the issues and concentrate on embarrassing the members of the opposition. They were contentious, disagreeable, and ill-mannered. A sample of their thinking, for example, was to shout that they had proved beyond the shadow of a doubt that the Atlantic Pact will insure permanent peace because Ernest Bevin is in favor of it. In addition to their other sins, they quoted Bevin out of context and twisted his meaning. They were using debate as a means of personal aggrandizement rather than as a social methodology.

I recently asked one of our younger history professors to help judge a debate. "No sir," he said emphatically, "I've had all I can take of debates and debaters. I can spot them in my classes. They are contentious, disagreeable, and will not listen intelligently if they disagree. I have the same trouble myself, and my debate training is largely responsible."

In one of the freshman classes there is a boy who has not had much luck at making friends on the campus. He is remarkably quick at making an argument. If the teacher points out that the dictionary suggests a certain use of quotation marks, he is likely to contend that this use is wrong and bring his high school textbook to class to

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prove it. He is finding it difficult to participate in discussions of current issues because he cannot credit the honesty of opposing points of view. He was a successful high school debater, but it appears that his debating experiences did not develop attitudes which will be of value to him either as a college student or as a democratic citizen. Although he is the exception rather than the rule, this student does exemplify characteristics which too often identify the products of contest debating.

In the fall of 1948 we at Peabody administered careful diagnostic tests in speech to 301 freshman students. Of the 301 some 89 had participated in high school debates. The scores of the debaters on the speech test were somewhat lower than the general average.

These examples are not cited to show that training in forensics is undesirable. They do indicate that if it is poorly directed, the forensic activity can be a danger to society and a gross disservice to the students who participate. Debating is potentially the most useful activity of our educational system, but it is falling pitifully short of this potential. It is the purpose of this article to suggest some modifications which might improve contest debating as a training ground for democratic leaders.

The function of debate in a democracy is to encourage all men to consider all reasoned points of view on the problem at hand. This process, it is assumed, insures that the decisions taken are wise; that the decisions will be better carried out by persons who were involved in making the decisions; and that the participation itself is conducive to the development of mature and responsible persons. A debater thus has two obligations: to present his case so that it gets a fair hearing; and to listen with respect to opposing points of view. His function is to persuade as many people as possible to hear all sides before making a choice, and to help as many as possible to understand the available choices. A debater in a democracy, as distinguished from a debater in a forensic contest, does not "lose" because the decision goes to the opposing case, unless he has failed to get a fair hearing for the point of view he represents. The debater and everybody else loses, however, if he succeeds in winning the decision by means of faulty reasoning or misrepresentation or personal invective, since in this way he not only contaminates the democratic process but also makes it less likely that the decision is a good one.

High school and college debating would be a more profitable activity if it could be modified to make it a more realistic exercise

in the kinds of debating which are in fact a vital part of the democratic process. This writer will presume to suggest two changes in direction which he believes would implement this end.

1: Let us agree to reward teams which display the characteristics of debating as we would like to see it used in democratic society. Let us reward young men and women who debate as we would like to see political candidates debate rather than approve debaters who debate the way political candidates seem to think they must debate in order to win. Let us reward debaters who speak as we think lawyers ought to speak in order to achieve justice, rather than debaters who speak as we think a lawyer might speak to win his case. In other words, let's raise our sights, ideologically.

As a basis for discussion, the writer will suggest several characteristics which he thinks we should look for and reward in contest debates. Let us look for clear, accurate, forceful *exposition*. The debater serves best who best clarifies the issues and alternatives. Decisions are taken by the electorate, not by the debaters; and persuasion is misplaced which is used to cause unthinking listeners to follow blindly in the lead of the speaker. The democratic debater uses his most persuasive appeals to get his audience to think, and he trusts the decision to his audience after he has done his best to insure that they understand the merits of his case. Let us look, second, for honest and accurate reporting of verifiable facts and for clear reasoning on such solid foundations. Let us look third for language which demonstrates a respect for this central institution in all human culture. Language is the only known medium through which men's minds can come together and agree on the problems with which debaters deal. It must be consciously used as an instrument with which to create human understanding, not as a club with which to beat an opponent. Let us look, fourth, for speech behavior which is pleasant, sincere, and direct; which shows respect for the intelligence of both audience and opposition and for the importance of the occasion. And finally, let us look for indications that the debaters understand the nature and function of debate as a democratic methodology. If we who judge debates and who select judges for debates agree to award decisions to teams which display these characteristics, the second change in direction will follow.

2: Let us teach debate in its larger context as it fits into a democratic society, rather than as a contest, roughly analogous to football, in which the chief aim is to win. Let us work hard, through lectures,

discussions, practice debates, and readings in the field of democratic ethics, to help our students to see the debating activity in its really splendid guise as the problem solving process of a free society. Let us work hard ourselves to identify the essential characteristics of democratic debate, and to so conduct our practice sessions and class meetings that our students will develop these characteristics.

If we are able to make these two modifications in the conduct of debating activities, then none of our students will emerge as contentious and disagreeable persons who are neither pleasant companions or good democrats. None of our students will learn that complex public questions are always either affirmative or negative, right or wrong, communist or fascist, red or reactionary. None of our students will come away with the notion that one must select a point of view and stick with it regardless of changing facts and new evidence or suffer the disgrace of "losing." All of our students, rather than just a few, will emerge from their debating experiences with a deeper understanding of the democratic way of making decisions and an increased effectiveness in democratic leadership.

It is tempting to conclude with a re-statement of the need for a change. At no time in our history has it been more important that all of us clarify our concepts of democracy, loyalty, and freedom and clarify them in concrete and verifiable terms on which men can agree. The new fact of atomic energy gives terrifying significance to the ideological conflict which splits East and West. We can debate, or we can blow our civilization to bits. In order to debate, we must understand and teach not only the current practice, but the potential, of debate as a social methodology. We can no longer afford to teach debate as a means of personal aggrandizement, as a shallow course in salesmanship, or as a contest in which careless reporting, slovenly language, or even deliberate misrepresentation and smear are all right if they win. We must help our students to identify the characteristics which distinguish democratic debate from communist dialectic, and we must deliberately foster the development of loyalty to free discussion, to independent thinking, to the efficacy of human intelligence, and to the Hebraic-Christian tradition of individual freedom with responsibility.

## THE CRITICAL LISTENER: A STUDY IN KNOWLEDGE AND CANDOR

THEODORE CLEVENGER, JR.\*

It is axiomatic that radio's severest critics come from the top educational and socio-economic groups. As income, education, and social status rises, dissatisfaction with radio follows. The existence of this condition has been established by numerous nation-wide surveys by top research organizations, independent surveys by radio stations, and research projects by college and university students.

Several attempts have been made to discover the reasons for so critical an attitude toward radio by this group, but few people have concerned themselves with how well founded the criticism may be. Perhaps the public simply assume that a college degree, a higher income, or an elevated social position somehow create a discerning taste which lead to more refined radio listening habits.

To a certain extent this may be true, but there are indications that the critical listeners who come from this group are less qualified to judge than is generally supposed. A survey made in Waco, Texas, disclosed several items which shed light on the attitude of the sophisticated critics.

Thirty-three university professors, thirty-three high school teachers, and thirty-four members of the city's wealthier families were chosen to constitute a sample group of one hundred. These figures did not purport to constitute a proportional sampling of each group but were chosen arbitrarily. Assuming that the three groups together constitute the upper educational and socio-economic levels of the city, the proportion chosen from each group is of secondary importance in this type survey.

Each examinee was given a questionnaire designed to discover his attitude toward radio and his radio listening habits. The first question asked him to check one of four listed sentences which best described his feelings about radio listening in this city. Table I shows the distribution of responses to this question.

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**TABLE I**  
**DISTRIBUTION OF ATTITUDES TOWARD RADIO LISTENING**

Attitude	No. Checking
A. I like radio just as it is, because it gives me lots of inexpensive entertainment.	14%
B. I can see plenty of room for improvement in radio, but when I want to listen I can find pretty good programs.	34%
C. I like a few radio programs, but most of them don't interest me.	43%
D. Most radio programs are slanted toward listeners of low intelligence and taste. I consider radio listening mostly a waste of time.	9%

All but fourteen of the hundred could see plenty of room for improvement in radio, and more than half had an attitude which may be described as critical.

Question number two asked the examinee to check any of fourteen types of radio programs to which he listened frequently. From a critical group one ordinarily expects discriminating listening habits, and the answers to this question followed the traditional pattern.

**TABLE II**  
**TYPES OF PROGRAMS MOST FREQUENTLY LISTENED TO**

Type Program	No. Checking
News	99%
Semi-Classical Music	48%
Quiz Programs	48%
Discussions	43%
Classical Music	42%

The third and fourth questions fall into the same pattern as the first and second. The third question asked the questionee to check the types of programs which he would like to see scheduled less often: the fourth question asked him to check the types which he would like to see scheduled more often. The replies are tabulated in Tables III and IV.

TABLE III

TYPES OF PROGRAMS WHICH QUESTIONEES  
SUGGESTED BE SCHEDULED LESS OFTEN

Type Program	No Checking
Western & Hillbilly	72%
Dramatic Serials	42%
Mysteries	30%
Popular Music	18%

TABLE IV

TYPES OF PROGRAMS WHICH QUESTIONEES  
SUGGESTED BE SCHEDULED MORE OFTEN

Type Program	No. Checking
Semi-Classical Music	56%
Classical Music	44%
Discussions	30%
News	26%

Everything up to this point showed the sample group representative of sophisticated critics in general. Their education, income, and social standing had apparently bred a discriminating taste. As a group they were critical, listened to cultural and informative programs, and preferred fewer low-brow and more high-brow programs.

The first surprise came in question number five. The question read:

Question four asked you what types of radio programs you would like to see scheduled more often in the Waco area. Can you name a few programs of each of the types you checked above which are now available to listeners in this area?

Eight of the total sample group of one hundred had checked nothing on question number four, so their responses to this question may be eliminated. The responses of the remaining ninety-two questionees are tabulated in Table V according to the number of program titles of each type which they listed in response to question number five.

TABLE V

DISTRIBUTION OF NUMBER OF PROGRAM TITLES LISTED PER  
TYPE RESPONDENT INDICATED SHOULD BE  
SCHEDULED MORE OFTEN

Number of Titles Listed Per Type Respondent In- dicated Should Be Scheduled More Often	No. of Respondents Listing	Per Cent of 92
More than 2 per type	0	0
2 per type	23	25
1 per type	15	16.3
0 per type	54	58.7

Stated simply, this means that more than half of those who suggested more of any type program were unable to name a single program of that type available in the test area at the time of the survey. An additional one-sixth of the group could name only one program of each type, and no questionnaire reported more than two programs per type.

It would be hard to miss the significance of these figures. Allowing the most reasonable margin for error and unwillingness to take time to fill in the blanks, analysis shows that this group was more than a little unfamiliar with the cultural and informative programs available to them. One may doubt their authority on the advisability of adding others.

One may question why the sophisticated radio critic feels compelled to go beyond his knowledge in criticizing radio. Probably the readiest answer is that he has heard certain types of radio programs criticized by others of his group and has adopted the prevailing attitude of the group in order to assure himself and others that he belongs. The last question on the survey form, although intended for quite another purpose, lends some support to this conjecture.

The titles of twenty-four radio programs were listed, and the subject was asked to check whether he listened to each of them often, sometimes, seldom, or never. All of the titles were high in intellectual, cultural, or informational appeal, but four of them were entirely fictitious. The distribution of those respondents who checked fictitious titles appears in Table VI.



TABLE VI

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS CHECKING FICTITIOUS TITLES

Fictitious Title Number	No. of Respondents Checking		
	Often	Sometimes	Seldom
1	20	21	13
2	2	8	13
3	3	11	8
4	5	15	13
Total	30	55	47

The total number of responses to fictitious titles was one hundred thirty-two. However, several members of the group responded to more than one fictitious title. A total of seventy-seven of the group checked at least one of the fictitious titles.

Simplified, this means that more than three-fourths of the group were not entirely candid in describing how often they listened to cultural and informational programs. Allow a reasonable margin for cases of honest error and the percentage is still significantly high. This figure renders the list entirely useless for determining how often critical listeners hear high-brow programs, but it is a handy guide to their attitudes.

The survey disclosed two significant facts about the more sophisticated critics of radio. First, they are largely unacquainted with the cultural and informational programs now available to them, although they appear quite willing to suggest the addition of more programs of that type. Second, they are not entirely truthful in reporting how often they listen to cultural and informational programs.

Taken together these facts indicate that much of the criticism coming from this group of critical listeners is not well founded, since it is not made from a position of informed judgment.

## THE IMPLICATIONS OF TELEVISION IN EDUCATION

TOM C. BATTIN\*

The phenomenal growth in the number of both television transmitters and receivers has made it increasingly important for all educators to evaluate the influence of television upon public education. The potentialities offered by this new medium for education have been recognized by the more far-sighted educators who are aware also of the dangers that accompany any new instrument that may be used to influence the lives of people.

People are interested in seeing other people in action. This is evident by the many sports events, movies, stage shows, and numerous other activities in which people, as spectators, are interested. The sources of the television program are as broad as humanity itself, and its educational potentialities are tremendous, principally because of its great flexibility.

With a mobile television unit such activities as Congress in session, the National Political Convention, the United Nations meetings, a symphony orchestra in Carnegie Hall, or even a day at school can be televised on the spot and brought into the home or school at the very moment the event takes place.

With the televising of the United Nations one gets a clear picture of what the impact of the medium actually can be if wisely used. The educational value of these telecasts can hardly be overestimated. All persons televising the sessions actually have a "front row seat" at the very moment the meeting is in session, and the immediacy of the event and having a "front row seat" are two of the most important factors relative to the value of television in education. Therefore, educators should make every effort to use the medium as a part of their program.

All about us we hear of the alleged evil effects of television upon our children and many prophecies of what this mechanical monster may do to society. One writer has made the comment that we may well become "a chairbound, myopic, and speechless race." Another maintains that the daily diet of westerns, vaudeville acts, and wrestling is destined to entertain children into a state of mental paralysis.

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Children will probably survive television as they have survived the many radio serial programs and the double-feature western movies. In the majority of cases they will always be able to regard the program as make-believe stories and watch them from that standpoint. The child may act out an FBI story in his play the next day; however, in all probability, he will always recognize this play acting as fantasy filled with excitement but free of fear.

Every teacher will find certain programs to be particularly helpful, and it will be to his advantage to be conversant in the field of TV programming and to discuss the relative merits of the medium with his pupils. Television has become an important part of the lives of all normal school children who have access to a receiver, and the student's viewing must be directed away from an overdose of the pure entertainment program to that which is definitely of educational nature.

Educators should be cognizant of the fact that any program stamped with the word "education" will probably not have much of an audience unless it is an in-school or captured type audience. It is their responsibility to see that educational programs are well written, well directed, and well presented. If an educational program is interesting it will hold attention.

The intense interest of some of our progressive educators in television is apparent in an excerpt from a letter by Dr. Ethel F. Hubbard, Associate Superintendent of Schools, New York City:

As I see it, the impact of television on education is two-fold. One is the effect that time spent viewing televised programs has on out-of-school life and experiences of children and the related after-effect on children's school progress. The other, is the need for a school to study the best possible uses of television as a part of its own program.

Preliminary reports and studies indicate that children of elementary school age are spending from two and a half to three hours daily watching televised programs. They are doing less leisure time reading. Parent's opinions seem to be equally divided about whether or not television has additional, beneficial, educational effects on their children. An extremely small percentage of parents feel that watching television interferes with the educational progress of their children. Of course, there is a possible question whether their feeling on this matter is not one of rationalization or somewhat influenced by their own enthusiasm for having a television set. Teachers are showing concern about the possible reduction in time for more active after-school

activities by children. They are also concerned about the need for improving the quality of current programs and the advertising they carry.<sup>1</sup>

Almost everyone will agree that television's greatest attention is received from the many children with whom education is primarily concerned; namely, those who are in school. Therefore, the educator's concern with the unlimited potentialities of television is intimate and vital. It is very important that all teachers recognize the fact that probably television's greatest potential audience is made up of children, and it is equally important that broadcasters recognize this fact and make every attempt to develop a close relationship with educators, thereby improving program content for the advancement of education.

Wallace S. Moreland, Rutgers University, confirms this thought:

Television is a medium which holds great potentialities for advancing education, but, the extent to which this potential is realized will depend, in the final analysis, upon the degree to which the educators and broadcasters succeed in achieving a truly effective partnership, one dedicated to the proposition that television can and will advance education.<sup>2</sup>

One has only to read the schedule of programs to see the unbalanced diet to which children are subjected. If this diet is to be balanced it will be necessary for teachers and broadcasters to begin planning together while television is still a lusty infant. Without any doubt, the most difficult problem facing industry today is what to offer in the way of TV programming for daytime periods. We cannot argue against the fact that television tends to be a "complete attention" activity, and the housewife cannot do her work and watch a TV screen at the same time. In regard to this, Philip Lewis, TV Editor of *Educational Screen*, makes these comments:

Experiments in Chicago and New York have tentatively shown that daytime television is not too successful as far as housewife consumption is concerned. This means that much "air time" will be available for possible utilization during the instructional day. Here is an excellent chance for the schools to plan television pro-

<sup>1</sup>Excerpt from letter sent by Dr. Ethel F. Hubbard, Associate Superintendent of Schools, New York City. (October 30, 1950)

<sup>2</sup>Wallace S. Moreland, "What Does TV Mean To Education," *Education on the Air*, XVI (April, 1949), 272.

grams, with good possibilities of getting them on the air if they are well planned and entertaining as well as educational.<sup>3</sup>

If industry loses sight of the fact that visual education has been playing a prominent part in the overall education of the child, then they will miss out completely on the significance of television in education. However, if industry recognizes the greatness of the reception given the telecasts of the United Nations Sessions and then continues to telecast other real-life situations and problems, it will provide the schools with a powerful ally.

Television comes as another development to assist us in making our instructional program more effective and efficient. The realization of the greatness of this medium for supplementing education depends on the immediate, careful, and intelligent planning carried on between schools and commercial studios in every community where TV begins operations. Educators must have the vision to keep pace with this new medium and to help industry plan some of the programs that are to be sent into the home for televiewing by children. We should contact the local television station or one in a nearby city to see what arrangement can be made for educational programming for home or in-school televiewing.

Educators could help sponsors realize the importance of education via television by making suggestions to them for promoting special hobby programs or, for designing and model building contests for which the winners receive scholarships. Here is a useful device for motivating children to televise programs that are informational and educational.

Dallas W. Smythe, University of Illinois, expresses a strong viewpoint on this:

In glamorous fashion the opportunities of "school industry" co-operation will increasingly be presented to educators by commercial television stations. A similar approach will be made by equipment manufacturers wanting to sell equipment. What should we tell them? There is no universal answer possible. The answer will depend on the local situation. It will be determined in the light of the local facilities in both school and community, by local needs, local policy makers on matters of curricula, by educational budgets. Such an arrangement between school and industry offers two obvious advantages. There is the valuable

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<sup>3</sup>Phillip Lewis, "Video — Whether or Not," *Chicago Schools*, XXII (October, 1950), 86.

opportunity to get experiences in the planning and production of informational and instructional programs via television. There is the opportunity of getting a "free ride" in a venture which can build public relations for the school. Educators should be encouraged to experiment with TV.<sup>4</sup>

As early as 1948 it was suggested that educators should become cognizant of their responsibility in recognizing the potential of this new medium in the field of education. Nathan Rudich, in a speech at the institute for Education by Radio, made this observation:

Educators must not be caught short this time, but, must start planning for the utilization of television as a medium of education. If properly used television can be one of the most significant aids that has ever come within the reach of the teacher. Television carries a tremendous amount of influence and it is up to the educators to provide the guidance and assistance that is necessary for television to assume its proper place in the American system of education on all levels.<sup>5</sup>

In many instances, the thinking for the moment seems to indicate that television is competing with education. On the contrary, with teachers and parents as the motivating force, television will supplement education and grow to be an integral part of our educational plan.

Many of us recall the programs presented by Walter Damrosch a few years ago over radio. How much greater could have been the impact and effectiveness of these programs had they been telecast and the personality of the artist visualized. How much greater could have been the impact and effectiveness of these programs had the children been able to see closeup shots of the various instruments and the manner in which they were handled. Miss Elizabeth Golterman, Director, Audio-Visual Education, St. Louis Public Schools, has stated it this way:

When we read that leaders in the industry are thinking in terms of two-way television and global telecasts, the impact of television in future education defies calculations. Artists and scientists of note will enter the classroom as teachers. World news and calamities will be viewed simultaneously with their occurrence, and

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<sup>4</sup>Dallas Smythe, "Television Implications," *Elementary English Review*, XXVII (June, 1950), 41-52.

<sup>5</sup>Nathan Rudich, "Television and Education," *Education on the Air*, XVIII (May, 1948), 274.

legislative bodies will be seen and heard in session. These face-to-face experiences will give the student a new perspective of the world he lives in, a deeper understanding of the events of the time and a broader sense of responsibility as a leader in the world of tomorrow.<sup>6</sup>

Educators and industry should make every effort to set up programs that will fit into the lives of school children as smoothly as possible. David Sarnoff, one of the great pioneers in the field of radio and television, makes these comments:

The important thing now is how to use the medium of television affirmatively for children and how to set up telecasts so that they fit into the school day smoothly. This is an obvious problem for everyone concerned.<sup>7</sup>

It has been said that the literature and drama of our present culture are predominantly composed of what is heard over radio and to a lesser degree of what is seen in movies and read in magazines and newspapers, and that increasingly our literature and drama will grow to consist of what is seen over television. If this is true perhaps educators and industry should take a cue from boys and girls who do televising because the universal appeal of the medium to children offers an unparalleled opportunity for influencing them in positive ways. Therefore, programs must be planned and developed through cooperative efforts.

Television can either be a problem or a great force for good where school children are concerned. Let it run wild and it can be very harmful; keep it under control and it will help children, parents, and teachers by being one of our greatest means of disseminating education.

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<sup>6</sup>Elizabeth Golterman, "Television and Education," *Educational Screen*, XXVIII (March, 1949), 108.

<sup>7</sup>David Sarnoff, "Homework," *Time* (April 10, 1950), LV, 60.

## BOOK REVIEWS

EDYTH M. RENSHAW, *Editor*

ESSENTIALS OF GENERAL SPEECH. By A. Craig Baird and Franklin H. Knower.  
New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1952; pp. vii + 253. \$3.00.

This book, a brief edition of the volume *General Speech; An Introduction*, is designed for college courses in general speech education which require a short text. While it preserves the basic principles and philosophy of the older volume, it contains changes.

It is constructed upon three fundamental principles. (1) Speech is a process of social activity and as such is studied in order to promote more satisfactory social behavior. (2) The development of speech skill is the product of effective methods of learning, the best of which combines growth of understanding, attitudes, and skills. (3) Speech is a process of manipulating ideas.

The fundamental processes of speech — the speaker's personality, the voice, articulation, bodily action, ideas, language, and organization of the speech — make up the subject matter of the book and are discussed as they function in relation to both the speaker and the audience.

Outstanding features are a combination of psychological and rhetorical approaches, consideration of educational and social psychology, and the treatment of word symbols, adaptation to the audience, listening, and persuasive speaking.

Certain changes from the parent volume are evident. By the combination of chapters on the same topic, the book is shortened. Chapter XXIII on Radio Speaking is omitted and a brief section on Radio and TV is included in Types of Speeches. A distinct improvement is the omission of Chapter XI The Speaker's Personality with its treatment of traits bordering on the psychopathic such as fantasy and paranoia, and the substitution throughout this book of material for the development of the speaker's personality and his adaptation to the audience situation.

The beginner's problems are treated with "down to earth" advice. The discussion of the production and control of the voice is adequate, but not too technical. Chapter IX on Articulation and Pronunciation is thorough, but not too detailed. Suggestions on Reading and Note Taking are helpful, but not complicated.

The illustrative features such as pictures, rating charts, and examples add to the effectiveness of the book. The large number of projects and problems at the end of each chapter are quite varied. The ideas and exercises on criticism, sufficient for a first course in speech, should be of assistance in the student's self improvement.

The eight page chapter on Oral Reading, although containing some good suggestions, is inadequate.



*Essentials of General Speech* is a well written, fundamentally sound text. It is specific, clear, and concise. It should be very usable in many beginning speech courses.

LOLA WALKER

*Baylor University*

THE MEASUREMENT OF HEARING. By Ira J. Hirsch. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1952; pp. ix + 364. \$6.00.

Audiologists and experimental psychologists have become increasingly aware of the gap between the fields of clinical audiometry and psychophysical experimentation in hearing. Dr. Hirsch has attempted expertly to bridge this gap. His book will be welcomed by otologists, audiologists, and psychologists alike. Designed as a reference for those engaged in measuring and treating disordered hearing, it will also serve admirably as a textbook for courses in audiology.

Written admittedly from the viewpoint of the experimental psychologist, the book presents an extensive summary of those experimental areas that seem to be basic to the measurement of different aspects of hearing, both clinical and experimental. The work was undertaken with the blessing of the Committee on Hearing of the National Research Council and proceeded with the advice of its members and an impressive group of other leaders in various branches of the study of hearing. During the preparation of the manuscript, Dr. Hirsch was a research fellow at Harvard's Psycho-Acoustic Laboratory and benefited from the studies sponsored there by the Office of Naval Research. He can be said to speak with authority.

The book opens with an introduction to psychophysics — the measurement of responses and stimuli — and its relation to the present clinical and experimental audiometry. Then follows a study of the physical attributes of sound and some basic principles of electro-acoustic equipment as a preliminary to the discussion of various types of auditory measurement. These include the measurement of hearing for pure tones and speech as well as the subjects of masking, fatigue, and differential sensitivity. Audiologists will welcome especially the treatments of the phenomenon of recruitment and the recently developed conditioning techniques of audiometry. A final chapter attempts to relate the experimental information to suggested procedures in clinical audiometry. Two helpful appendices and a glossary are not to be overlooked. These include specifications for audiometers and lists of spondee and phonetically balanced words used in measuring hearing loss for speech.

Readers will be grateful to Dr. Hirsch not only for his scholarship but for his clarity of language. The book is definitely readable.

MARY K. SANDS

*Arkansas State Teachers College*

ONE-ACT PLAYS FOR ALL-GIRL CASTS. By Marjorie B. Paradis. Boston: Plays, Inc., 1952; pp. 193. \$2.50.

Plays, Inc., has always been interested in publishing short plays for younger actors and actresses. This newest volume contains twelve short plays which may be produced by amateur groups without payment of royalty. All of the plays are of the same general type . . . all comedies . . . dealing with the problems of teenage girls. Most of the important characters are these girls and the plots revolve around their problems.

Scenes for several of the plays are laid at the Duncan Hall School for Girls, where one would naturally expect to find all girls and their teachers. In none of the plays does one feel that the author has had to struggle to keep men and boys off the stage . . . in fact one doesn't miss them.

The chief weakness of the plays is found in the fact that most of the characters are types of people rather than clearly drawn individuals. They range from the typical, kindly director of the school who is ready to commit an injustice because of the honesty and integrity of the students to several familiar types of students; an over-sweet girl who wants to be a singer and who has received the nickname of Honey, and the rattle-brained mixer-up who has been named Wacky. With some good direction, the characters might be brought to life but there would be a great temptation to play them just as the author conceived them and as a result, they would come out as types.

The plots of most of the plays are rather thin and the tricks by which they are resolved is almost too simple in most of them. Although they all contain some moral lesson, these are not stressed to the point that they become objectionable.

In spite of what has been said above, the plays contain some good dialogue and should be entertaining to most audiences. They should prove especially good for a group of high school girls who would like to try their dramatic wings for an assembly program or for a club meeting. The plays contain no great technical problems and they are short. Included in the group are three plays for special occasions, Thanksgiving, Christmas, and Lincoln's Birthday, and all of these plays are better than most plays written for such seasons.

On the whole, the plays are much better than most plays written for all-girl casts. It should be a worthwhile book to have in the high school library.

JOSH P. ROACH

*Texas State College for Women*

REPRESENTATIVE AMERICAN SPEECHES. 1951-1952, Vol. 3. Edited by A. Craig Baird. New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1952; pp. 197 only. \$1.75.

Many colleges suffer from a lack of opportunity to hear speakers of note. Though the printed speech cannot wholly substitute for the living speaker it has the same thought content and provides additional values for speech study. Among the inadequacies of public speaking students is their paucity of language,

their habitual use of trite phrases, and the presentation of ideas that have staled for want of revitalizing variation. A. Craig Baird's *Representative American Speeches* gives students an opportunity not to hear once but to study speeches of merit on the chief controversial issues of contemporary life; speeches vitalized by vivid vocabularies, piquant phrases, language capable of pricking the imagination, thereby challenging the student to "come alive" and climb out of the thicket of forensic mediocrity.

In the classroom speech students meet analytical terms and definitions that too often remain only words to memorize for examination. Baird, by his terse analysis of each speech and speaker, provides an apt interpretation of textbook terms, not only as related to composition, but to the speakers as compelling human figures with various traits of character and vocal potency. Baird's succinct biographical notes point out indirectly that an able speaker is first an able man, rich in experience, and mentally keen. Since the representative speakers are all contemporary men of public importance, the study of the printed speech may well influence the student to use his next opportunity to hear the man, thereby increasing the student's comprehension of values in vocal delivery as well as in structure and content.

This review is directed toward speech teachers. The book, however, has keen value for any intelligent reader who wishes to be enlightened on the times. The excellent introductory analyses of the editor enhance the value received by skillfully pointing the reader's attention to significant fine points.

DOROTHY RICHEY

*Furman University*

PRACTICAL BUSINESS SPEAKING. By William Phillips Sanford and Willard Hayes Yeager, (Third Edition). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1952; pp. xiv + 322. \$4.75.

*Practical Business Speaking* contains several unique contributions in the art and practice of communication. This book, for example, avoids trivial novel-ties and discusses in clear language the needs of the speakers under various and important *speaking occasions*. In other words, the authors of *Practical Business Speaking*, as was the case in their earlier volumes, have emphasized the value of *how to prepare* a given speech for a specific occasion and purpose. Through the use of this method, the book achieves a high degree of clarity, particularly for the uninitiated. Perhaps the avoidance of a full discussion on *voice*, with its many ramifications and difficulties for the beginner, may be criticized. However, the authors, no doubt, have kept constantly before them the fact that their volume must serve the *immediate* and essential needs of the average business man who, if he does not possess a pleasing, clear and fluent speech, must, of necessity, learn to perform with the speech *tools* he may have at his command.

Another pleasing contribution found in *Practical Business Speaking* is the clear, and, at times vivid, writing style of the authors. This desirable quality

is achieved primarily through the use of clear, meaningful words and sentences, aided considerably by the judicious application of appropriate examples, charts, and outlines. Furthermore, the authors avoid, consciously or otherwise, any attempt, so common in modern writers on *fundamentals* of speech, to impress the reader with the depth, if not the width, of the author's vocabulary! For example, Sanford and Yeager do not speak of the heterogeneous or homogeneous audience, but they do insist that the beginning student must "not regard those before him as a generalized mass called *the audience*, but, on the contrary, he says to himself, 'Here are a number of people.'" Such an approach is refreshing and valuable to a speaker who must learn to talk to *individuals*, without the fearsome and insurmountable problems involved when one attempts to solve the problems of audience *analysis*, not to mention group dynamics!

Finally, Sanford and Yeager have achieved a desirable balance between the "Thesis" treatment and the over-simplification of the many problems in speech fundamentals. For instance, one is impressed with the learning and background of the writers, although there is no visible attempt made by them to enforce their concepts on speech by numerous and, for the most part, unnecessary citations from and of other writers. Numerous examples from current speakers, however, supply a clear and practical illustration of the techniques of communication and give the reader a necessary view of what other speakers have done successfully under certain conditions.

*Practical Business Speaking* (Third Edition) is a book that a student may study with profit and the business man may read for valuable and specific hints in time of need.

THOMAS A. ROUSSE

University of Texas

ARGUMENTATION, DISCUSSION AND DEBATE. By A. Craig Baird. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950; pp. x + 422. \$4.50.

*Argumentation, Discussion, and Debate* has four major divisions: (1) an introduction to the general field of rhetorical speaking and writing; (2) a study of the principles and techniques of argumentation; (3) their application to discussion and (4) their application to debate.

The study of the principles and techniques of argumentation occupies approximately two-thirds of the book. In this section there is a discussion of research techniques, analysis, organization, evidence and argument. Other topics treated are reflective thinking, obstacles to straight thinking, composition, motivation, and delivery.

Throughout the book the chapters are organized in an outline pattern with the topic sentences of the paragraphs lettered or numbered to indicate relationships. Exercises accompany each chapter. Supplementary readings are suggested in an appendix. Other appendices contain a specimen brief, suggested library sources for reading on current problems, and an outline of parlia-

mentary law. This book does not use pictures or visual aids nor does it make any suggestions for using such forms of support in argumentation.

Baird states that he has planned the book as a college textbook in argumentation, in discussion, or in debate, adaptable for a one-semester or two-semester course. He seems to have achieved that purpose admirably. Baird also succeeds in the primary aim, "to interpret for the college student of the mid-twentieth century well established argumentative principles as effected by the current contributions of logic, philosophy, psychology, speech political science and related subjects."

MARY LOUISE GEHRING

*Mississippi Southern College*

PLAY PRODUCTION AND DIRECTION. By C. Lowell Lees. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1951; pp. xiii + 311. \$3.75.

Dr. Lees states in the forward to his book that it "is not essentially a book in play production," but just what else it would be I have no idea. In the modern world's desire to get everything (even learning) in READER'S DIGEST form, the student of the theatre should be delighted with this book, for in about three hundred pages the reader is taken from the selection of a play to within a few minutes before the curtain rises. In these pages he has met most of the crises of production as well as the problems of the designers, technicians, and front of the house men. And it has been rather interesting reading, too.

*Play Production and Direction*, because of its form, seems a wise selection for a textbook. The author writes of many of the problems of the director, but does not elaborate too fully. The responsibility (and opportunity) for amplification and discussion is left to the teacher. Early in his book, Dr. Lees points out that there is seldom only one way to do a thing. If the person who teaches from this book can be as objective, the chances for a good course are many.

There is nothing revolutionary in the material, but it is presented with written illustrations based on plays that the average student of drama has been exposed to. Several pictures enhance the book. The whole book, including illustrations and pictures, is geared for good college level production, but is usable for advanced high school directors as well as community or little theatre producers.

At the end of each section of the book, there are problems or "applications" — not to be confused with dreary workbook problems used in many secondary school systems. These will be especially welcomed by the inexperienced teacher. Each section further concludes with a frighteningly long bibliography which possibly ought to be ignored for a few of your own favorites. But Lees' book is one I think you'll like to use.

PRESTON MAGRUDER

*University of Arkansas*

## NEWS AND NOTES

HOWARD W. TOWNSEND, *Acting Editor*

Miss Louise Sawyer, Valdosta State College, who has served without interruption as News and Notes Editor since THE SOUTHERN SPEECH JOURNAL was begun in 1935, asked recently to be relieved of those duties. The Southern Speech Association owes Miss Sawyer a sincere vote of appreciation for her long and faithful service to its official publication.

Miss Chloe Armstrong, Baylor University, has agreed to serve in the position. The Association is fortunate in securing the help of so capable and popular a person, and it is hoped that all members will assume the responsibility of keeping the new editor supplied with information which she can use in this column.

Claude M. Wise, Louisiana State University, is visiting professor of phonetics and linguistics at the University of Hawaii during 1952-53. In his absence, Dr. Claude L. Shaver is serving as chairman of the department.

Dr. Lou Kennedy, formerly of the Louisiana State University staff, has joined the faculty of the Davidson School for Speech Correction in Atlanta, Georgia.

Dr. Harriet Idol of the Louisiana faculty is teaching this year in the LSU Caribbean program in the Canal Zone.

Claude M. Wise, LSU, presented a paper entitled: "The Development of Hawaiian Orthography" at the Fifth Annual Convention of The Pacific Speech Association held on the campus of the University of Hawaii, March 28, 1953.

The Department of Speech of Louisiana State University and the Office of High School Relations jointly sponsored a series of workshops for high school teachers throughout the state last year. The October meeting was devoted to drama; the November meeting to debate, oratory, and extemporaneous speaking; the December meeting to radio and interpretation. This was the fourth year these workshops which help high school teachers solve problems in preparing students for speech activities have been held.

Douglas Ehninger, University of Florida, was elected President of the Florida Speech Association at the last convention.

George F. Henigan, Jr., has been on leave during this year from George Washington University to complete work on his doctorate at the University of Florida.

John C. Collison and Mrs. Ray Battin served as graduate assistants and Mrs. Margaret F. Perritt became a member of the Speech Clinic of The University of Florida this year.

The University of Florida Radio Guild accepted forty active and apprentice members during 1951-52. Membership is open to those who accumulate sufficient points for active participation in radio and television programs broadcast weekly through the facilities of CBS and MBS. The members write, produce, and direct three series of radio programs each week. Their TV series, "Knowl-

edge in Action," has received a 40.5 rating in a commercial survey, indicating an audience of over 50,000 viewers. The Director of Television who also acts as sponsor and supervisor of the Guild is Tom C. Battin.

Lyndon B. Johnson, United States Senator from Texas, once taught public speaking at the University of Houston.

Crannell Tolliver, Chairman of the Speech Department at West Texas State College and Executive Secretary of the Texas Speech Association, received the Ph.D. degree from the University of Denver in August, 1952. His dissertation concerns the speech training needs of public school teachers.

Wendell Cain of the West Texas speech faculty is on leave for work on the doctorate at the University of Denver.

Ed Gossett, former Congressman from Texas and now chief legal consultant for the Southwestern Bell Telephone Company, recently established the Ed Gossett Oratorical Contest at The University of Texas. The first was held in March. Three prizes of \$100, \$75, and \$50 are given.

Other annual forensic contests at The University of Texas during the spring included: Hearst Oratory, Wilmot Declamation for Freshmen, Missouri Valley, Battle of Flowers, Texas Society Sons of American Revolution Oratory, and Lutzer Stark Debate.

A high spot of the debating season was an International Debate between Cambridge University and the University of Texas on the question, "Coeducation—How Valuable Is It?" held in March.

The Speech Department and the Public Lectures Committee jointly sponsored a lecture by Professor James O'Neill, retired head of the Speech Department of Brooklyn College, on the campus in March.

On March 18th the Speech Clinic at The University of Texas held open house in its new quarters. Several hundred persons called during the afternoon. The affair was given under the direction of the Speech Club.

Roger Cilley of the Drama Department was so seriously injured in an automobile accident early in the spring that he is unable to meet his classes for the remainder of the school year.

The first of what is planned to be an annual Student Activities Conference was held in November at the University of Texas under the joint sponsorship of The University, The Interscholastic League, and the South Central Texas High Schools. Sectional meetings including demonstrations, evaluations, and lectures were held in speech (declamation, debate, extemporaneous speaking, and drama), journalism, and ready writing. Howard W. Townsend of the Speech Department served as general chairman for the conference.

The Texas Speech Association held its annual convention in November in El Paso. Dr. Fred Barton of Abilene Christian College arranged the program. The Association with the cooperation of the Texas Education Agency has completed publication of a state course of study in speech for high schools and has now in preparation a similar project for junior high schools.

The University of Alabama Department of Radio has added television to its curriculum and now offers the M.A. as well as the B.A. degree. WAPB, student radio station, is operated in connection with course work in radio and tele-

vision. Student broadcasts also use the facilities of WVOA-FM, University, and WAFM-TV of Birmingham.

The Department of Speech and Drama at Memphis State College held three speech institutes for high school students during the fall of 1952 under the direction of Donald C. Streeter. A "Ways and Means" Institute was held in October; a Discussion Institute in November; and an Interpretation Institute in December.

Jack Handley was appointed director of drama at Arkansas State College for 1952-53.

The University of Mississippi added Joseph Baldwin as associate professor of speech and director of the experimental theatre and Franklin O. Davis as instructor in speech and theatre technician.

Mary Louise Gehring became director of debate, and Frank Lewis became instructor in speech at Mississippi Southern College.

Officers of The Southern Speech Association for 1953-54 elected at the annual convention in April are:

President, Charles M. Getchell, University of Mississippi.

First Vice-President, Louise D. Davison, Davison School of Speech Correction, Atlanta, Georgia.

Second Vice-President, Emmy Lou Patton, Central High School, Jackson, Mississippi.

Third Vice-President, P. Merville Larson, Texas Technological College, Lubbock, Texas.

Editor, Douglas Ehninger, University of Florida (To take office in April, 1954).



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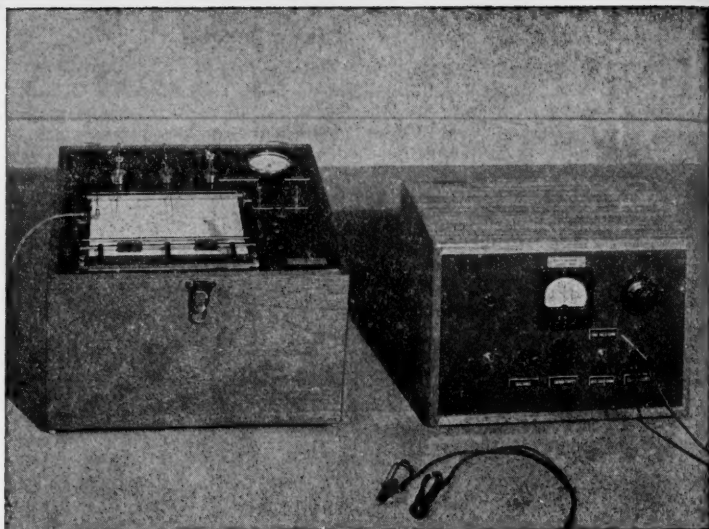
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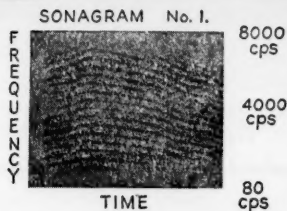
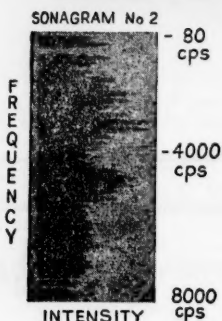
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